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ABSTRACT

This paper describes a five-stage process for the development, implementation, and evaluation of counseling outreach programs. State I takes the reader from the formulation of a germinal program idea through the procedures of assessing need for the program, assessing of agency resources, building a program planning team, and conducting a thorough literature search. Stage II sequentially outlines how to specify and enumerate behavioral goals for the program, how to develop its delivery system, how to design evaluation procedures and what to prepare for running the pilot program. Stage III emphasizes the importance of effective program publicity, the necessity of developing staff training methods, some notes on actually conducting the pilot program and ends with a discussion of the importance of studying the pilot evaluation results before deciding to embark on Stage IV. Stage IV consists of offering the program on a regular basis with refinement of training and evaluation methodologies. Finally, Stage V includes the periodic re-examination of the program in relation to its target, purpose, method and changing agency needs. (Author)

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The cover depicts man's striving toward unity of personality, represented by the magic circle, or mandala.

INITIATION AND IMPLEMENTATION OF OUTREACH PROGRAMS

By
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Vol V, No. 2, 1974-75

Abstract

This paper describes a five stage process for the development, implementation, and evaluation of counseling outreach programs. Stage I takes the reader from the formulation of a germinal program idea through the procedures of assessing need for the program, assessing of agency resources, building a program planning team, and conducting a thorough literature search. Stage II sequentially outlines how to specify and enumerate behavioral goals for the program, how to develop its delivery system, how to design evaluation procedures and what to prepare for running the pilot program. Stage III emphasizes the importance of effective program publicity, the necessity of developing staff training methods, some notes on actually conducting the pilot program and ends with a discussion of the importance of studying the pilot evaluation results before deciding to embark on Stage IV. Stage IV consists of offering the program on a regular basis with refinement of training and evaluation methodologies.

Finally, Stage V includes the periodic re-examination of the program in relation to its target, purpose, method and changing agency needs. Often spin-off ideas are pursued in this stage and re-cycling through the stages begins. The five stage model is delineated in sufficient detail to provide the reader with a "how to" manual for learning the process.

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During the past several years a significant role change has been occurring in the counseling profession. University counselors have traditionally spent most of their professional time assisting individual students with emotional or vocational problems. The newer breed of counselor, who used to serve primarily those troubled students who found their way to his/her office, has reached out to become a growth consultant to the larger academic community. This expanded role definition of counseling includes not only remedial help for individual students, but a wide range of counseling interventions with administrators, faculty, and students. Such counseling interventions have the broader objective of changing the living-learning environment in ways that maximize the growth and development of all its members. These developments toward a wider role have been seen as well in other student services, and in community agencies.

The trend began as a strong reaction to college counselors locking themselves into primarily one-counselor to one-client relationships. Oetting (1967) proposed the model of counseling where developmental tasks were defined as all those life experiences that are necessary for intellectual, social, and personal growth. Ironically, he challenged college counselors to set for themselves a new developmental task. Oetting challenged counselors to spend significantly more time in identifying the developmental tasks of normal student growth and subsequently creating mental health training programs which provide arenas for the acquisition of those developmental tasks.

In 1968, Morrill, Ivey, and Oetting designed a counseling center where staff members were expected to move outside their safe consulting room and attempt to change the institutional environment with the aim of maximizing student growth. They named these preventive and developmental helping interventions "developmental outreach programs." Sensing that they were not alone in their thinking, Morrill and Oetting (1970) surveyed 397 counseling centers and found that 80 percent of

the 236 respondents were involved in some type of outreach program, although many of these were fairly routine consultation with residence halls, deans, etc. However, 122 of the respondent centers were highly involved in some outreach program.

In a move to facilitate the understanding of outreach programming on the part of college counselors, Morrill and Hurst (1971) specified three roles for the preventive-developmental counselor. The first role of the preventive-developmental counselor is to "contribute to, support, modify, and enhance the learning environment." Working to change in loco parentis rules and providing faculty consultation to improve teaching are examples of helping interventions encompassed by this first role. Second, the college counselor attempts to "facilitate maximum utilization of the learning environment by students." Included here are helping interventions such as individual and group counseling for social/personal skills. The third role of the counselor in an academic community is "to study the student and learn his environment and their interaction as a means of providing the necessary data base for the implementation of role one and two."

Our colleagues who predicted the eventual disappearance of individual counseling may have been overreacting, but their reaction has yielded an expanded and potentially more viable definition of the college counselor. The most recent conceptualization of outreach programming (Morrill, Oetting, and Hurst, 1974) reinstates individual counseling to its rightful place, but only within a greatly expanded spectrum of counseling interventions. More specifically, Morrill, Oetting, and Hurst (1974) have provided a model which allows classification of counseling programs along three dimensions (see Figure 1). The three dimensions are: 1) The target of intervention--intervention aimed at the individual, his/her primary group, his/her associational groups, or the institution

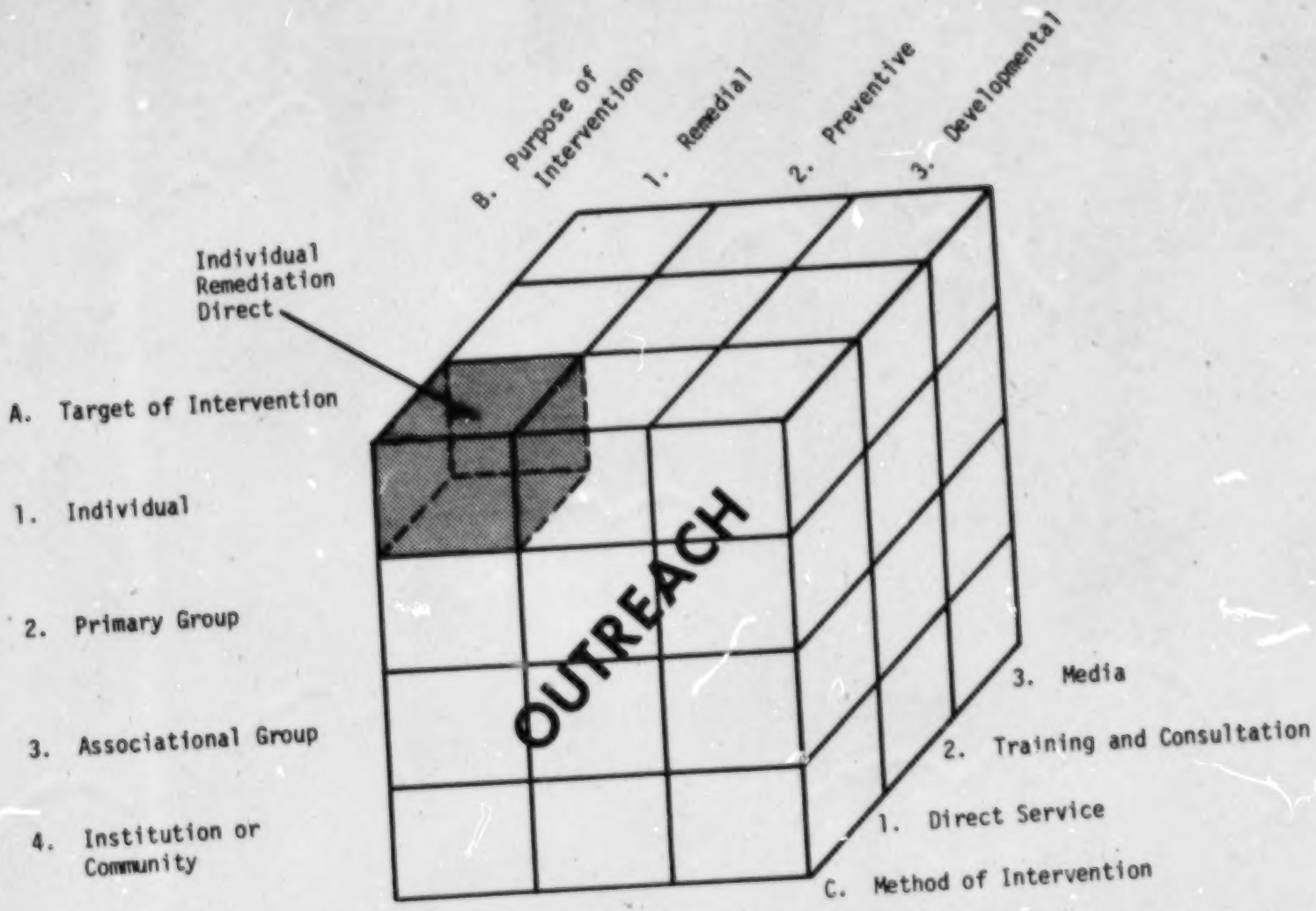

Figure 1. Dimensions of Counselor Functioning
(Copyright 1972 by Morrill, Oetting, and Hurst. Reproduced by permission.)

influencing the individual's behavior, 2) The purpose of the intervention--intervention of a remedial nature, a preventive nature, or a developmental nature, and 3) The method of intervention--whether the counselor is directly involved in initiating the change or indirectly involved through consultation and training of others, or the use of media. According to Morrill, Oetting, and Hurst (1974), all interventions outside of the individual, remedial, and direct cell are termed "outreach."

What has not yet appeared in the counseling literature is a systematic approach to developing outreach programs from the first germinal idea to the assimilation of the evaluation data concerning the program's effectiveness. Our task in the paper is to outline the five stages we have found to be necessary in the process of effective program development and discuss the limits within which the process must be considered. It is only fair to say that we will abstract the process as we have experienced it ourselves in the development of our own outreach programs in the University Counseling Center at Colorado State University. We hope to be concrete enough in specifying each stage so that our readers, in counseling centers or other campus and community agencies, may easily identify where they are in their own outreach programming. We also hope that our present conceptualization will assist other counselors and human service workers in systematically initiating new outreach programs in their own communities.

After crystalizing a germinal program idea, Stage I consists of demonstrating the need, target, and purpose for the program, assessing staff and budgetary resources, creating a program development team, and conducting a search of the relevant practice and research literature. Stage II consists of setting goals and behavioral objectives, creating a delivery system for the program, specifying an evaluation plan and deciding who is going to staff the pilot run of the program. Stage III consists of developing and implementing publicity, intake, and staff training procedures, conducting the pilot program with a select

population, collecting evaluation data, and deciding whether to extend the program into the next stage. Stage IV consists of offering the program in a continuous way to broader populations, refining the training procedures for the program leaders, developing supplementary training aids for participants, and evaluating program parameters. Stage V involves possible redesign in terms of a different target or purpose, or an extension of the original program, and systematic reassessment of all aspects of the program.

Stage I: Idea to Commitment

Stage I in the life of an emerging outreach program consists of six distinct processes. First, a staff member gets excited or strongly interested in a germinal idea for a potential program. The remaining five processes may occur in almost any order but they must occur before Stage I is completed. There must be an agency decision that sufficient agency resources exist to investigate the potential of the proposed program. The initiating staff member solicits support from interested colleagues and forms a workteam. The initiator or workteam must demonstrate need for the program, and a specific target population and purpose of the intervention must be determined. And, finally, the workteam searches the relevant practice and research literature for data that will support or negate the decision to continue into Stage II.

If the workteam is formed prior to determination of the target population, one or more members of this population should be added later. Likewise, the team may decide to add other members with specific relevant skills.

The Germinal Idea

How do outreach programs begin? Let us consider some typical sources from which the germinal idea for a program originates. Sometimes a counseling center staff member says to himself/herself: "I'm interested in working with married students, and they don't seem to have many services available to them. I think I would

like to put together a marital enrichment workshop." Another source of germinal ideas is the faculty member or administrator who calls the counseling center and asks: "Our department doesn't seem to be doing a very effective job of academic advising, could you help us become more effective advisors? Still another source of program ideas is the student. For example, a student leader makes this request: "We need some leadership training for our student government officers. Could you lead a workshop for us in leadership skills?" Finally, some member of the university community may have surveyed a particular student or faculty population and found a specific programming need which is referred to the counseling center. The possible sources for germinating exciting program ideas are as varied as the university community itself. However, there is a critical need for additional work in the area of environmental mapping and assessment as a part of the determination of needs and priorities for program development. Banning (1973) has begun some of this much needed work.

Demonstrating Need for the Program

After a germinal program idea is generated, the question, "Just how much need is there for the projected program?" must be answered. We feel that it is not enough to say, "That group has requested a program, so let's develop one." The need must be demonstrated for the projected program in behavioral terms. Therefore, one of the initiator's or workteam's first tasks is often to systematically survey the appropriate populations within the community to assess how much need exists for the projected program (Banning, 1973). Assessing need in this manner for a projected program also provides valuable information to an agency in setting its program priorities.

Three distinct questions must be answered in the need-assessment process.

1. Just how many persons in the target population (students or faculty) actually will use the projected program? There are several alternative ap-

proaches for determining how many potential users there are for a program. The most obvious attack is to ask the population at whom the program is directed. For example, if the team wishes to initiate a study skills program, it might go to the student personnel office and find out how many students list "ineffective study skills" as a significant reason for withdrawing from school. Or, the team might sample academic advisors to find out how many specific requests in skill improvement are made to them. Another alternative is to survey a sample of students actually on academic probation and ask them whether they would avail themselves of such a program. Finally, academic advisors might be queried as to whether they would actually refer students to such a program if an effective one were available. These alternative strategies may be used with any target population within the university community. Seek out a sample of the target population or someone who deals directly with that population and ask their reactions to the proposed program.

2. Are any programs already existing in the university community with similar aims? Who offers these programs and how effective are they? The answers to these questions, if actively sought, will help in deciding whether the proposed program will augment existing services, compete in a non-productive way, or create conflicts with other groups. Accurate information about potentially similar programs may lead to a decision to try and join forces with other individuals or agencies in creating a proposed program; on the other hand, it may underscore the need for the proposed program.

3. Who specifically is requesting the program? Is it the dean of students who has budgetary power over the Center, or is it an angry faculty member who has never supported the center and is never likely to do so? This question assumes that the counseling center views each new program as a chance to increase its sphere of influence at all levels of the university community. The agency's source of power comes not only from the students it serves but from

all those faculty and administrators who understand and support the center's operation. An agency may decide that one program has priority over another because it has been requested or supported by someone who can effectively expand the center's sphere of influence.

Specification of Target Population and Purpose

Using the model presented in Figure 1, a specific target population and purpose must be determined. This decision is made based primarily on the assessment of need and the skills and interests of available staff. It is also strongly influenced by the targets and purposes already being served by the agency.

Availability of Agency Resources

A task that must be undertaken is determining whether the agency has staff and other resources to begin another outreach program. This is a crucial question often overlooked until the consequences of being over-extended become painfully evident. Too frequently staff members are given support for developing a new program without systematically considering how much actual commitment in terms of staff and how much commitment in terms of time is actually involved in program development. A systematic study should be made of all currently existing outreach programs in the agency within the context of that agency's philosophical priority for program directions.

More specifically, we suggest first a step-by-step process of systematic agency assessment of staff resources. The concepts described in each of the following steps will be elaborated later in the body of this paper. First, all staff members responsible for currently functioning programs should complete a checksheet for each program. This checksheet (Figure 2) requires that each program director report the person-hours being spent by four categories

Figure 2. Checksheet 1--Number of hours being spent by four categories of personnel for a specific outreach program, by tasks in each stage of the program development process.

Program Name _____ Date _____

	Program Development Tasks	Personnel Categories: Professional	Allied Professional	Paraprofessional/ Volunteer	Target Population Member
Stage I	1. Formulate germinal idea				
	2. Demonstrate need				
	3. Specify target population and purpose of intervention				
	4. Assess agency resources				
	5. Form workteam (planning group)				
	6. Conduct literature search				
Stage II	7. Specify goals of program (general to specific)				
	8. Develop delivery system				
	9. Plan evaluation method and procedures				
	10. Prepare for running pilot program				
Stage III	11. Develop publicity and/or intake procedures				
	12. Develop and implement staff training procedures				
	13. Run pilot program				
	14. Evaluate program				
	15. Make decision based on evaluation data				
Stage IV	16. Offer program regularly to wider populations				
	17. Train others to implement the program				
	18. Develop and redevelop materials				
	19. Continue and refine the evaluation process				
Stage V	20. Redesign in terms of a different target, purpose, and an extension of the original program				
	21. Reassess all aspects of the program systematically				

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Figure 3. Checksheet for listing all agency outreach programs by Purpose, Target, and Method (Morrill, Oetting, and Hurst, 1974). Examples are listed for some cells.

	PURPOSE								
	REMEDIAL			PREVENTATIVE			DEVELOPMENTAL		
	Method			Method			Method		
TARGET	Direct Service	Consultation Training	Media	Direct Service	Consultation Training	Media	Direct Service	Consultation Training	Media
INDIVIDUAL	Individual Counseling	Peer Counseling	Film: How to Deal with Depression	Communication Skills Workshop					Computerized vocational Choice Modual
PRIMARY GROUPS	Marital Counseling	Clergy Workshop in Marital Counseling		Pre-marital Workshop			Child Rearing Classes for Parents	Marital Enrichment Workshop	Films on Constructive Parenting
ASSOCIATIONAL GROUPS	Conflict Resolution in Psych. Dept.			Workshop for Professors: Making Referrals			Video-Recall Groups for assistants		Film: How to Conduct a Business Meeting
INSTITUTIONS OR COMMUNITIES	Consultation with Dean about a Dept. Head			Workshop for Dept. Head on Students Decisions					

of personnel utilized for each specific task in the program development process. Completed, Checksheet I provides the outreach program director with an accurate barometer of the progress for his/her program. Second, by compiling the results of Checksheet I for all agency programs, it is possible to determine the number of agency person-hours being spent by each kind of personnel in each stage of the program development process. Finally, Checksheet II, presented in Figure 3, provides a means for mapping all existing programs using the classification grid developed by Morrill, Oetting, and Hurst (1974).

These two worksheets assist the staff in answering respectively the following questions:

1. How much time do we as an agency wish to employ to each stage of the program development process, across all programs?
2. What proportion of each kind of personnel do we wish to employ or work toward employing, across all programs?
3. Which class of program target populations, which type of program purpose, and which type of program interventions do we as an agency wish to emphasize?

The authors are not implying that these three questions provide all the data needed for an agency to decide which outreach programs to support. Agencies must also take into account staff interests and skills, agency needs determined by higher administrators or university expectations, and budgetary restrictions. However, when these three questions have been answered by an agency, it is a simpler matter to support or reject the initiation of a newly proposed program. If the agency, after systematically assessing its program goals in employment of staff resources, gives support to a new program, the authors feel that the commitment should be at least through Stage III, with realistic time support for carrying out all the tasks therein.

The Program Development Team

At some point during Stage I, a workteam is usually formed consisting of three to eight persons who are all interested in the program idea. Although the main responsibility for a program resides in the initiating agency, team members should be solicited from other agencies, academic faculty, and the student body because of their interest and skills.

The utilization of other personnel affords a distinct advantage. We are entering the "day of the consumer" in mental health and social services. We can no longer get away with planning for, rather than with those who will partake of our services. Students from the target population may not only save us from embarrassing and time-consuming mistakes as workteam members, but they can also be important resources as program implementers. Likewise, professionals in allied fields may provide insights and specific skills in the staffing of a pilot program.

We define the four categories of personnel which we recommend utilizing in outreach programs as follows.

1. Professional. This term denotes a professional worker in the field in which the program is being developed. In counseling center programs the professional is generally a counselor or psychologist.

2. Allied Professional. This term is applied to the person who is a professional in his/her own field, but is engaged in program development or implementation in another field. Thus, a minister or academic faculty member is an allied professional for counseling center programs.

3. Paraprofessionals. The paraprofessional is a student or other non-professional person given special training by the agency to perform some of the tasks usually performed by professionals. This person may be employed or be volunteering his/her services. Some agencies include their graduate student trainees in this category; at CSU we do not.

4. Target Population Member. For purposes of input in Stage I, this is a person who is a member of the group or population which is the target of the program.

We have found the team approach to program development to be more effective and enjoyable than one or two persons working alone. Besides the obvious benefit of additional creativity, specialized skills of individual team members may be tapped to facilitate the various tasks in the program development process. Perhaps the most special benefit of the team effort is the mutual support and encouragement that members can give each other to the sometimes slow and disappointing parts of the rather long process. Likewise, success often seems richer when shared with an interested teammate. Our experience with several program development teams has led us to suggest several guidelines for enhancing professional effectiveness and socially rich team functioning.

1. One team member clearly assumes the leadership role of guiding the team through the various tasks in the program development process.

2. Specialization of program development tasks is to be encouraged in team members. Team members may even be chosen or invited to participate because of special skills they can bring to the process. Someone with evaluation expertise (research design or statistical skills) is a valuable asset to any workteam. A member of the population at which the program is aimed can give immediate feedback to proposed ideas or training experiences. An individual with conflict resolution skills can help the team through those rough spots when differences of opinion effect an impasse in the process.

3. Whenever possible, specific work responsibilities are assumed by or assigned to specific team members with a clear indication of the expected completion date. For example, a team member may be asked to provide a first draft of ideas brainstormed at a given session so that all may respond to it at the next meeting. Another example--a team member assumes the responsibility

of compiling a survey questionnaire created by the team to be distributed to the target population in assessing need for the program. If specific team members do not spontaneously volunteer for the more onerous tasks, then the leader must actively solicit a volunteer.

4. Conflicts and disagreements between team members are best dealt with openly as they occur. Such impasses are inevitable and need to be resolved as they happen in order for the team to steadily complete its objectives. We have observed that viable outreach programs can be sabotaged because some team members are unwilling to try to reach compromise positions or solutions on important issues.

5. Preparing written summaries of each meeting's product of ideas keeps all team members involved and informed. Responsibility for recording the proceedings of each workteam meeting may be delegated to a regular secretary or assumed by various team members at each meeting.

6. Finally, a regular meeting time and place is clearly specified. Equipping the meeting room with newsprint or a blackboard enhances expansion of ideas and facilitates brainstorming when it is necessary.

The Literature Search

When initiating a new outreach program, a thorough search of the practice and research literature affords two direct benefits. Early in Stage I the literature search may yield studies that help demonstrate the need for the proposed project; other researchers may have surveyed the population(s) at which the proposed program is aimed and reported a need for such interventions. At the end of Stage I, the literature search may provide ideas that facilitate setting behavior objectives and creating training tasks (Stage II) for the proposed program. This is especially true when a similar program has been attempted and evaluated at another center.

A team approach to completing the literature search, with each member sharing summaries of important articles and books, saves time. Better yet, if graduate assistants or research technicians are available, the workteam's responsibility is limited to guiding the search and evaluating the collected summaries. Literature searches are often completed by undergraduates taking special studies in psychology or education.

Stage II: Commitment to Action

Stage II consists of preparing the new program for a pilot run with the target population. First, the broadest goals for the program are delineated and translated into behavior objectives. Second, training tasks and the delivery system are created to achieve the behavior objectives. Third, an evaluation plan is conceptualized and prepared for implementation with the pilot offering of the program. And last, personnel are selected and materials developed for the pilot program.

Before actually beginning to generate behavioral objectives, it is helpful to review the classification of the emerging program on two of the three dimensions of the Morrill, Oetting, and Hurst (1974) program classification system. Who is the designated target population? What is the purpose of the program intervention? For example, a workshop for improving marital communication is classified as follows: Target--primary group; Purpose of Intervention--developmental. The team may also have tentative ideas regarding the third dimension, Method, at this point, but a final decision should be delayed until after behavior objectives are set. By identifying which categories the program fits along the two dimensions, the team possesses conceptual guidelines within which to delineate the behavior objectives for the program.

Setting General Goals and Behavior Objectives

The setting of behavior objectives is perhaps the most important and least practiced task in the entire program development process. Behavior

objective setting is a step-by-step procedure where the broadest goals are translated into specific behavioral statements describing the desired effects of the program.

The behavior objective process (Weigel, 1971) can best be explained by walking through the steps with a model program. The program to be discussed is a marital enrichment workshop developed at Colorado State University (Hinkle and Moore, 1971). The workshop is a seven-session, semi-structured marriage training experience conducted by supervised allied and paraprofessionals. We ask our readers to imagine themselves beginning their program development process for this outreach program at Stage II and to observe each step.

Step I: General Goals. The workteam begins by brainstorming (Osborn, 1963) as many general goals for the workshop as possible. From the first rough list, the most important general goals are chosen for further specification. For example, one such general goal for the marital workshop is "to increase the effectiveness of communication between spouses."

Step 2: Behavioral Objectives. The workteam next attempts to state each of the general goals in behavioral terms. This is done by answering the following questions: "How would program participants behave differently if they achieved the general goal?" Therefore, the question to be answered for the general goal stated in Step I above would be phrased: "How would participant couples communicate more effectively with each other as a result of the marital enrichment workshop?" One response might be: "Participants would increase the number of 'good feedback' statements to each other." There can be several behavior objectives under each general goal.

Step 3: Observable Behavioral Objective. The next step is to make each behavioral objective as observable as possible. A facilitative question for this step is: "How could an observer tell if the program participants actually behaved differently as a result of the workshop?" Applied to the above behav-

ior objective the question becomes: "How could a person observing tell if the participant spouses are making more 'good feedback' statements to each other?" The answer might be: "They would be making more statements to each other expressing specific feelings about specific situations."

Step 4: Specific Observable Behavioral Objective. Finally, each behavioral objective is made even more specific (if possible). There are two helpful ways to increase specificity:

A. Limit the scope of the behavior. For example, the behavioral objective derived in Step 3 above might now be altered to read: "The participant partners would be sharing with each other anger felt about a particular experience." Obviously, a series of behavior objectives can be enumerated for each of several specific feelings about several specific situations.

B. Limit the time, place, person, or context. The behavioral objective of sharing anger with the spouse about an experience might be further limited to: 1) a time when only the two spouses are present, 2) and when each spouse has previously agreed to listen.

The process of proceeding from general goals to a lengthy list of behavior objectives is more difficult to practice than to discuss theoretically. The entire task often takes a workteam several hours, spread over several work sessions. However, the authors consider the time well spent since the two remaining tasks in Stage II cannot be effectively completed without a specified list of behavior objectives. The process is often more intuitive and less linear than presented above. A program workteam usually wanders back and forth between the task of setting objectives and developing implementation plans on its way to a finally integrated product. The creative process is never as smooth and linear as an analytical description of it. Recognizing this fact the workteam moves on its own unique route towards the agreed upon

goal--a schematic of general and specific objectives for each unit of the program juxtaposed by the corresponding implementation exercises or training tasks designed to meet those goals. See Figure 4 as an example of one such end product constructed for one session of an imaginary sexual enrichment workshop for college student couples.

Creating the Delivery System

In creating the program's delivery system the workteam's first decision is to decide on the Method or Methods to be utilized (third dimension on the program classification system). Will the program be offered directly by professionals, through training of or consultation with others, through media--or through some combination of these approaches? Another decision is whether to borrow and modify or generate new training tasks from scratch. Often counselors enter the program development process at this point without having completed many or all of the previous steps; consequently, the choice of whether to borrow or originate the training tasks is based more on personal whims than systematic consideration of the hard-won behavior objectives. An enumerated list of behavior objectives for each of the general program goals greatly simplifies this decision.

Let us look at this decision-making process as it occurred with the marital enrichment workshop we've been using as an example. First, the summaries of related practice literature, already collected, were re-examined in light of the workshop's general goals and respective behavior objectives. The question, "Does this particular article provide a training task that appears to achieve one or more of the behavior objectives for our proposed marriage workshop?" was answered. In this manner, a list of such training procedures from other programs was compiled to be considered for the delivery system of the workshop. Next, the workteam selected from this list the specific training procedures it wished to include in some form in the delivery system. The selection included behavior goal setting (Weigel, 1971), the good feedback communication exercise (Bollinger,

Figure 4.

Session 5: Improving Your Sexual Relationship
from the Sexuality Enrichment Workshop
Colorado State University Counseling Center

General Objective 1: To have each participant couple increase the mutual sharing of fantasies and desire for innovation previous to, during, or after sexual intercourse.

Behavioral Objectives:

a. Each partner will share with the other three ways that he/she wants to experiment with or vary behavior previous to, during, or after sexual intercourse.

b. Each partner will share with the other three ways that he/she wants the other to experiment with or vary behavior previous to, during, or after sexual intercourse.

General Objective 2: To have each couple actually experiment with mutually agreed upon new behaviors previous to, during, and after sexual intercourse.

Behavioral Objectives:

a. Each partner agrees to try initiation of one mutually agreed upon behavior previous to, during, and after sexual intercourse during the week following this session.

b. Both partners agree to discuss after experimenting with each new behavior, their feelings about the experience.

c. Both partners will agree to try new behaviors that are anxiety arousing to either partner at least three times before deciding to exclude it altogether from their relationship repetoire.

d. Both partners will put their mutually agreed upon behaviors for experimentation in a private, written contract "for increasing their pleasure."

Implementation Procedures (The Delivery System)

1. The entire group (4-6 couples) is first divided into same sex groups. The two groups then brainstorm a list of behaviors which any couple could engage in previous to sexual intercourse.

2. The two groups reconvene and the lists are shared with the whole group.

3. Each participant next considers from the lists behaviors he/she would like to try and lists them on private worksheets.

4. Steps 1, 2, and 3 are repeated for behaviors during and after sexual intercourse.

5. Participants next share all the items on the private worksheet with their partners and reach agreement on several behaviors they wish to try previous to, during, and after sexual intercourse. They create a written contract with each other for "increased pleasure" which indicates approximately when the behaviors will be carried out.

1969), constructive fighting exercises (Bach, 1969), and nonverbal sensuality exercises (Gunther, 1969 and 1971). Of course, all these components were further modified to meet the objectives of our particular workshop. Finally, by comparing the selected list of potentially effective training elements with the entire set of goals and behavior objectives for the program, it became evident which behavior objectives would require the development of new training procedures. For our marital enrichment workshop, new training tasks had to be created for most of the behavior objectives in the area of nonsexual intimacy.

The workteam's next task is to fully develop all the training procedures that comprise the delivery system for the emerging program, including both borrowed and created procedures. But what concepts or principles guide this process? Think for a minute; what is the broadest goal to be accomplished by the training procedures in most outreach programs? Is it not to effect specific behavior changes in the target population? The authors have found that a behavior change model is most helpful in affording a set of guidelines for developing the training tasks for programs which are administered directly to the target populations. Keep in mind that this model may not apply to programs aimed at creating changes in institutions or to programs of a more indirect nature not involving direct participation by target individuals.

A behavior change training model (Parker, 1971; Ivey, 1971) is presented below in two parts. First, the steps of the behavior change training model are explained. Then, these steps are illustrated by walking through a specific training procedure from the CSU marital enrichment workshop (Moore and Hinkle, 1970).

The main steps in the behavior change training model for individuals are:

1. EXPLAIN to the program participants (the target population) the objectives of your training procedure, and exactly what the training procedure entails. In other words, tell them what you intend to do and why.
2. DEMONSTRATE the training procedure for the participants so they can

observe the behavior change objective being reached. This may be accomplished by either of two means: a lecture presentation studded with clear examples, or an audiovisual model of the behavior change objective being effectively achieved. Another way to say this is that you "walk them through" the training process to effective skill acquisition.

3. Provide an opportunity for participants to PRACTICE BY ROLE-PLAYING the behavior change objective being taught

and/or

4. Provide an opportunity for participants to PRACTICE the behavior change objective WITH THE ACTUAL PERSONS OR SITUATIONS toward which the change is directed.

In both the "role-playing" and actual practice, FEEDBACK about effectiveness of PERFORMANCE is given the participants by the program leaders and/or other participants.

5. Conduct a discussion with participants where they compare the training objectives with the practicing they have just finished; this DISCUSSION allows the participants to INTEGRATE their understanding of the change objective with their own practice experience.

The Good Feedback Communication Exercise from sessions two and three of the CSU marital enrichment workshop provides a good illustration of the behavior change model in practice. The exercise consists of two elements: constructing feedback statements to give to one's spouse, and actually giving and receiving the feedback statements. The workshop leader first EXPLAINS element one, the criteria for constructing good feedback statements. "Good feedback statements are 1) descriptive of feelings rather than evaluative of the other person, 2) specific rather than general, and 3) about behavior that can be changed, except when giving complimentary feedback." Actual examples of good feedback statements accompany the explanation DEMONSTRATING explicitly

its meaning, i.e., "I feel angry towards you when you don't pick up your clothes in the morning." Then, all participants are asked to translate short descriptions they've previously written about their partners into good feedback statements; two complimentary ones, and two negative, angry ones.

Element two, the three-step process by which the good feedback statements are given and received, is then EXPLAINED:

Step 1: Partner 1 addresses his feedback statement to Partner 2.

Step 2: Partner 2 says: "What I hear you saying to me is . . . "and repeats the statement until Partner 1 indicates that it has been received accurately.

Step 3: Partner 2 response to Partner 1's feedback statement with "Inside I feel . . . about your statement."

The three-step process is DEMONSTRATED by an audio tape of a married couple actually giving and receiving positive and negative feedback statements. The demonstration tape offers a model of the communication exercise being performed as explained.

In the next step participants PRACTICE giving and sending their own feedback statements as demonstrated, but with an opposite sex partner other than their spouses. Participants follow the training model with less anxiety and better performance by ROLE PLAYING with a practice partner. FEEDBACK is given in the role playing practice by other couples and the workshop leader. Subsequently, each participant ACTUALLY PRACTICES the good feedback exercise with his/her own spouse. As in the role playing situation, FEEDBACK is given by observing couples and the trainer. Finally, all participants share with each other their affective and cognitive reactions to all the previous steps in the training process. This DISCUSSION facilitates the participants' INTEGRATION of the training objectives with their own learning experience.

This simple but effective training process aimed as specific behavior change is used in the marital enrichment workshop to achieve behavior objectives for each of the remaining sessions. A summary of the five steps of the behavior change training model can be done by using key words in each of the steps: Explain, Demonstrate, Role Playing Practice with Feedback, and/or Actual Practice with Feedback, and Discussion and Integration.

Evaluation Planning

Besides behavioralizing program objectives, the next least practiced task in program development is a design for program evaluation. Why do we counselors tend to avoid evaluation like the bubonic plague? Maybe we consider evaluation to be the private possession of our "hard-headed" experimental colleagues. More likely we are not trained proficiently as researchers and may be generally uninterested in questions of experimental design and measurement. For several reasons the authors consider the patent omission of systematic program evaluation a grave error.

First, objective evaluation data demonstrating the attainment of specified program goals substantiates budget requests for programming. Administrators are going to ask: "What are the aims of that program? How do you know that it achieves those aims?" If the team can provide more data than the subjective pleasure of leaders and participants the benefits are obvious.

In the same vein, objective evaluation data demonstrating a program's effectiveness serves to increase credibility with the academic community. This assumes, of course, that the agency actively informs the larger academic community of its programs and research to evaluate those programs.

Third, and perhaps most important, the evaluation process assists a center in deciding which programs merit continued support. Systematic evaluation data helps chart the specific directions for improving each program. Carefully planned evaluation is one of the primary sources of feedback by

which an agency grows. Supporting programs year after year that have not been demonstrated to be effective in reaching specific behavior objectives cannot be justified.

The aim of this section is to make the evaluation process less painful and more frequently practiced by program developers. The preparation of behavior objectives is itself answering an evaluation question, i.e., "How could an observer tell if participants actually behaved differently as a result of the program intervention?" Indeed, careful and serious preparation of behavior change objectives is the first step in systematically evaluating a program. The second step is to secure or create measurement instruments which detect specific effects of program interventions. And the third step is to design an experiment for assessing the pilot offering of your program.

Measurement Instruments. Program developers have varied knowledge and skills in the area of tests and measurements. If members of the workteam are deficit in such skills, then securing an evaluation consultant is strongly recommended. The authors have been in the enviable position of working in a Counseling Center where a professional has been explicitly hired to assist staff members with evaluation concerns. If others are not so fortunate, they will need to search elsewhere for an evaluation expert. One pregnant possibility is to increase the agency's credibility by asking an academic colleague in psychology, education, or statistics to assist in this task. Teams may also discover that their computer center employs a staff member specifically to help faculty with research designs and measurement. In practice, the team may seek assistance from one professional to select or create measurement instruments and from another to help develop a workable research design.

With or without evaluation consultants, the workteam's first evaluation decision is whether to use existing personality or behavioral measures or develop new ones. We have found this task significantly easier when we have previously prepared a list of specific behavior objectives for the program. With

such a list in hand, a team member may peruse The Seventh Mental Measurement Yearbook (1972) and select for further review those tests which appear to measure one or more specified behavior objectives. Likewise, a professional(s) with expertise in the area of the specific program would know which instruments he/she would recommend to measure behavior objectives. Obviously, an enumerated list of behavior objectives streamlines this otherwise aimless task.

If the team has to design its own measures of program effectiveness, the list of behavior objectives becomes the best guidelines for facilitating the process. If behaviors on the list can be observed directly by independent observers, it may be ideal. Usually, this is impossible. Perhaps the simplest measure derived from a list of behavior objectives is a self-report rating scale for program participants on which they rate their own judged progress toward each of the specific objectives. Let's look at such a scale developed recently at Colorado State University to evaluate a communication workshop for married and unmarried couples (Moore and Hinkle, 1970) using several items from the Relationship Goals Rating Scale (Uhlemann, 1974), as represented in Figure 5.

Figure 5: Six selected items from the Relationship Goals Rating Scale (Uhlemann, 1974), a self report behavior goal rating scale.

1. Watch and listen to partner's need for physical comforting.
2. Listen, instead of formulating comebacks, to each other's angry statements.
3. Share feelings about exciting work experiences.
4. Ask partner to be comforted when sad or lonely.
5. State to partner which sexual practices are most satisfying.

Workshop participants rated each of the items on two separate six-point Likert scales: 1) how frequently they act in the manner specified by each item, and 2) how important each objective is in their marriage relationship. Of course,

the Relationship Goals Rating Scale is fraught with all the shortcomings of a self-report measure, but it has the advantage of high face validity to program participants as a sensible addition to the training process.

The problem of face validity merits an additional word in regard to evaluating outreach programs. Carefully constructed evaluation plans may go awry if they offend participants or detract from the program training process. Effective program evaluation requires not only that instruments be reliable and valid, but that they make sense to program participants in light of program objectives and content. We have found that most persons will give an hour before and after a workshop to take tests providing 1) it is expected nonpunitively as part of the program contract, and 2) the tests appear to be related to what they actually experience in the program. Explaining to program participants the need for and benefits gained from evaluation, as well as giving them feedback of test results whenever possible also softens resistance.

After selecting or creating dependent variable measures, the team is ready to design an evaluation plan for the program. The ideal situation would provide a true control over the dependent variables to be evaluated. In actual practice this is seldom possible. The impossibility of providing a true controlled experiment does not diminish the programmer's responsibility to evaluate the effects of programs. The use of comparison groups, subjective evaluations by participants, process evaluations, change scores, observers' reports, and many other devices can be used to provide some feedback about the effects of programs. The evaluation of outreach programs requires a flexible, creative approach to research.

Common Evaluation Designs. There are three designs we have frequently found ourselves employing in evaluating pilot offerings of our programs. Although this paper is not meant to teach the principles of experimental research,

we are outlining the three designs with the hope of facilitating some acculturation to the evaluation process. We encourage reading of Research Methods in Social Relations (Selitz, Johods, Deutsch, and Cook, 1959) for a more thorough understanding.

The design we find ourselves using most often in assessing effectiveness of pilot programs consists of pre- and post-program measurements on the dependent variables with one control group. Figure 5 lists the conditions for this simple design. Note that for this design, as in all experimental designs involving control groups, the experimental and control groups are randomly selected before introducing the treatment (program).

Figure 5: Conditions comprising the pre-post design with only one control group.

Conditions	Experimental Groups	Control Groups
1. Prior selection of groups.	Yes	Yes
2. Pre-treatment measure.	Yes	Yes
3. Random assignment of subjects.	Yes	Yes
4. Exposure of Ss to treatment (program)	Yes	No
5. Exposure of Ss to uncontrolled events.	Yes	Yes
6. Post-treatment measure.	Yes	Yes

Two problems occur when this design is used to evaluate pilot outreach programs. First, it is difficult to make subject composition in the experimental and control groups equivalent. Second, it is difficult to randomly assign subjects because of such confounding situations as having to schedule experimental group participants when volunteer leaders are free. We have attempted to remedy these difficulties by offering a program during two consecutive time periods. Using this design, the program is provided for every experimental group.

The second design employs program participants as their own control group. Two pre-program measures and one post-program are obtained on the dependent variable. (Figure 6 lists the conditions for this design.) In this design program effectiveness is assessed by comparing the difference between pre-test 1 and and pre-test 2 and the difference between pre-test 2 and the post-test. Two situations justify the use of this design: 1) when investigators have good reason to believe that the pre-program measures will not affect either response to the treatment (program) or the post-program measure, and 2) that there are not likely to be other influences during the dead period and during the program that might bias the subjects' responses to the post-test. When program planners can prepare the evaluation instrument far enough in advance, this design is a potential alternative.

Figure 6. Conditions comprising pre-pre-post design with Ss as their own control.

Conditions	Subject Group
1. First pre-treatment measure	Yes
2. Dead period when Ss are exposed to uncontrolled events but not treatment (program).	Yes
3. Second pre-treatment measure at the beginning of program.	Yes
4. Exposure of Ss to treatment (program intervention).	Yes
5. Post-treatment measure.	Yes

The third design consists of one post-program measure only on the dependent variables with one control group. Figure 7 lists the conditions for this design.

Figure 7: Conditions comprising post-test only design with one control group.

Conditions	Experimental Groups	Control Groups
1. Prior selection of groups.	Yes	Yes
2. Pre-treatment measure.	No	No
3. Exposure of Ss to treatment (program).	Yes	No
4. Exposure of Ss to non-controlled events.	Yes	Yes
5. Post-treatment measure.	Yes	Yes

To maximize this design, subjects should be randomly assigned to the control group from a common population prior to introducing the program intervention. In reality this is often difficult to do when evaluating an outreach program in an applied setting. It is sometimes necessary, although less recommended, to assign subjects on some practical basis or to derive a control group sample after or during the program intervention. For example, it may be necessary to treat one class and use another as control. If the two groups (experimental and control) are similar on general characteristics, including initial position on the dependent variable, programmers still will be able to assess the effectiveness of the pilot program better than if they had no control group at all.

Design Efficiency. There are experimental designs more efficient than the three above in allowing the team to conclude that the program causes specific behavior changes. Designs employing more than one control group which provide information about the interaction between important variables are highly valuable when practical. Obviously, it is often not practical to invest as much time as the more complex designs require in assessing a pilot program. On the other hand, the team cannot afford to omit the careful construction of an evaluation plan for the pilot program, as the results contribute heavily to the decision whether to offer the program again in its first form. As a rule of thumb, we encourage program developers to employ the most powerful experimental design that their circumstances will afford to evaluate pilot programs.

Process Evaluation

Process evaluation consists of asking participants and program personnel (at every level) to give continuous feedback about how they perceive the program's implementation. A very short form which can be used at many junctures in the program includes the following:

1. List several adjectives that describe how you feel or think about program, training, etc.
2. List two or more strengths of program, training, etc. as you experienced it.
3. List two or more weaknesses of program, training, etc. as you experienced it.
4. List two specific ways that program, training, etc. could be improved.
5. Any additional comments.

Such a form is completed by participants after each or several units of the program, by leaders after the same, by leaders after a training session for conducting the program, or even after a program workteam meeting. This data is continuously monitored and allows immediate changes in the system as well as facilitating earned good feelings of competence for a job done as intended.

Evaluation System

It is vital to develop a workable and detailed system for use of the evaluation procedures. This includes not only decisions on design and instruments, but also a timetable for evaluation and specific tasks to be accomplished at each point. Liaison may have to be developed with the computer center or other resources. Various team members will assume responsibility for specific tasks in the evaluation process.

Preparation for the Pilot Program

The last task in Stage II is deciding what level of professional training is necessary to conduct all or each segment of the pilot program offering and developing any materials necessary for the program.

Staffing. Typically, program developers assume that only trained professionals are able to responsibly conduct a new program. In many instances this may be true; however, we would ask planners to consider the alternative of employing less trained personnel to staff the program whenever possible. This may mean a combination of two Methods--direct and training. Such an approach may initially be more time consuming, but it has great potential payoff.

The utilization of other than professional counseling allows more to be accomplished and adds insight from a variety of persons. We suggest utilizing allied professionals, paraprofessionals, and in some cases, target population members in the pilot program. We recommend using only students (paraprofessionals and target population members) who have been carefully selected and trained for a particular program. Student paraprofessionals in CSU programs are carefully trained and evaluated prior to working in programs (Delworth, Moore, Millick, and Leone, 1974).

We have discovered two principles to be very useful in deciding which level of personnel should conduct which training tasks in the pilot program. We hasten to add that these two principles also apply to the utilization of personnel throughout the entire program development process.

Principle I: Assign the tasks to be accomplished in a way that best utilizes all the personnel involved in the program. We are suggesting with this principle that persons involved with preparing or implementing the program have jobs that best fit their other special skills and level of training.

Principle 2: Employ the least trained personnel that will allow the team to effectively attain their behavior objectives. Another way to say this is that it is recommended that professionals be used only for those tasks that

actually demand their expertise. When persons with less training can do the job, use them!

One way to translate these two principles into effective action is to list all the tasks that have to be implemented (in this case the training tasks comprising the delivery system of the program) and then decide which ones must be carried out by which category of personnel to meet the objectives. With such a list the team will find it easier to match the available personnel to the appropriate tasks. Of course, other important variables will figure in the choice of who conducts the pilot program. For example, the team may have designed a sexuality enrichment workshop for married students. Because the specific academic community is very conservative, program planners might be forced to have the program conducted by a respected professional on the workteam, even though an allied professional or paraprofessional could do the job. The team would be employing a professional here, not because his/her skills are necessarily needed but because he/she lends necessary credibility to the endeavor.

One final consideration may cause planners to violate Principle 2. We advise that those professionals who will be trainers of allied professionals, paraprofessionals, or other students first actually conduct the program tasks that they will be teaching. We recommend this even though less trained personnel might adequately do the job. We believe as Robert Carkhuff has amply documented (1969) that trainers must be more proficient in the skills they teach than those to whom they teach the skills. Actual practice and participation in the tasks that comprise those skills is the only means we know to gain such proficiency.

Materials: At this point, all delivery system and evaluation materials need to be given final approval by the workteam. In addition, schedules, time-line charts, and other supplementary material has to be developed and agreed upon by the team.

Stage III: Action to Refinement

Stage III consists of implementing and evaluating the pilot program; three clear tasks complement this stage. First, the developed program is offered to a selected sample of the target population, with careful monitoring by the program development team. Second, both objective and subjective evaluation data are collected. And third, based on a studied examination of the evaluation data a decision is reached as to whether the program should be continued on a regular basis in some form.

Offering the Pilot Program

The team has done its homework, demonstrated need for the program, determined the agency's ability to support the new program, specified the program's objectives in behavioral terms, constructed an evaluation design for initial assessment of the program's effectiveness, and cleverly devised training procedures to achieve the behavioral objectives. The workteam has already invested so much professional time that the first run of the program seems almost anti-climactic. And yet, actually offering the program has its own special excitement. This is the stage where you "do your stuff" and when the workteam risks harvesting the fruits of all its preparatory labor.

Publicity and Intake

In order to enhance achievement of the intended objectives of the previous program planning, careful and thorough publicity is vital. We suggest five guidelines to assist in publicizing the program.

Effective advertising:

1. Is presented well in advance of the program's beginning date
2. Is readily available to the target population
3. Is presented in a form palatable to most members of the target population.

4. Contains clear statements of the program's objectives and procedures.

5. Indicates how interested persons may initiate participation.

If no one on the workteam is competent to work with publicity, then the team should seek extra-team consultation or assistance. Some advertising assistance may be secured from the graphic arts services available in most universities. Individuals with journalism skills also make good publicity consultants.

Publicity should be based on consideration of reaching the target population, i.e., the persons whom the team wants to participate.

Training

Another way to insure success of the pre-program planning is to implement continuous training for the new program. If professional personnel are conducting the pilot run it becomes a matter of their careful preparation and/or rehearsing before implementing each task in the delivery system. If allied professionals, paraprofessionals, or other students are program leaders in the pilot offering, then systematic training of these persons must occur. As a general rule, training of program leaders follows the same behavior change model outlined in Stage II for the development of training tasks for program participants. A good deal more will be said about training program leaders in our discussion of Stave IV. Here it is sufficient to advise program development teams to schedule regular meetings for program leaders as a means of continuous inservice training.

Collecting Evaluation Data

Regularly scheduled inservice training meetings also provide the vehicle for gathering and processing subjective evaluation data from program participants and leaders. For example, in the marital workshop for student couples (Moore and Hinkle, 1970), mentioned earlier in the section on evaluation instruments,

program leaders meet weekly with the program development team in order:

1. To report participants' positive and negative feedback about training tasks in each session.

2. To report their own positive and negative feedback about the training process as experienced by them as leaders.

3. To be trained for the next segment of the workshop.

It is important that the team systematically solicit positive and negative feedback from program participants and leaders, both during and after the program.

The second source of evaluation data comes from participants' pre- and post-responses to the objective measurement instruments. Someone on the program development team necessarily assumes responsibility for the pre- and post-administration of these evaluation instruments. As we mentioned earlier in the section on evaluation planning, it behooves the team to anticipate participant resistance to test-taking and assertively deal with it.

Decision to Continue

The workteam is now ready to pause and deliberately consider the future of their new outreach program. Subjective feedback from program leaders and participants has been compiled in a convenient form for the workteam's inspection. Likewise statistical analyses on all objective measures have been computed and presented in summary form for interpretation. We recommend that the program development team reach an independent decision concerning the future of the program before presenting its studied findings to whomever in the agency is responsible for coordinating outreach programming.

A studied decision concerning the future of an outreach program takes considerably more work time than is typically given to the process. Several hours are usually required for a workteam to ponder the subjective and objective

evaluation data in light of all the appropriate behavior objectives. Deliberate account taking of all available data juxtaposed against the program's specified objectives will result in one of three possible decisions:

1. Continuing the program in approximately the same form because both subjective and experimental data are essentially positive.

2. Continuing the program with modification of a) specific parts of the delivery system, b) specific behavior objectives that now seem less meaningful, or c) evaluation measures that don't appear to be tapping the desired effects of the program.

3. Discontinuing the program because both subjective and experimental data are essentially negative.

A further word about the modification of objective instruments is necessary. When behavior objectives are painstakingly specified before choosing evaluation instruments, the chances are greater that those instruments actually measure the desired effects of the program. However, this practice does not guarantee that the workteam has selected or created a valid instrument. If the team has strong evidence or reason to believe that changes occurred in participants because of the program intervention, but those changes are not reflected in the objective measures used in your pilot study, then it is prudent to take a closer look at the instruments and attempt to determine what happened. Validation studies may be necessary before deciding whether to use the measure again. At any rate, the workteam's evaluation expert or consultant is invaluable in helping make sense of such discrepancies.

Finally, the workteam's decision about the future of its program, including all supporting data, is presented to the person or persons in the center responsible for monitoring the allocation of staff resources to outreach program development. The program needs to be considered in the context of an up-to-date survey of all outreach programs being conducted by the center. As indicated

before, the information compiled from the worksheets (Figure 2 and 3) is designed to help the agency, as a whole, answer three questions:

1. How much time do we as an agency wish to employ to each stage of the program development process, across all programs?

2. What proportion of each kind of personnel do we wish to employ or work toward employing, across all programs?

3. Which category of target populations, which type of program purpose, and which type of program interventions do we as an agency wish to emphasize?

The program development team's proposed decision about its new program comprises a significant piece of data to be utilized in the agency's ongoing process of answering for itself the three questions above. Finally, if the program development team's decision is to continue the new program in some form, and the outreach coordinator concurs, then we close this section of the paper with one caution. Be certain to include sufficient work time for all personnel involved to effectively complete the tasks in Stage IV of the program development process.

Stage IV: Refinement to Maintenance

Stage IV involved the full implementation of the program. Four specific tasks are presented in this stage. First, the program is offered on a regular basis to larger samples of the target population. Second, effective training procedures for program leaders are further developed. Third, materials are developed or redeveloped. Fourth, the evaluation process is continued and refined to answer more specific questions.

Offering of the program

Stage IV still involves working with the original target population, but in greater numbers because the team is not ready yet to extend the program to other populations. For example, we would not take the marital enrichment work-

shop for relatively healthy couples and offer it to couples seeking marriage counseling because of severe relationship problems. Continued offering of the program allows tightening up or re-doing organizational procedures such as publicity, scheduling rooms, collecting evaluation data, or distributing training materials. Additional personnel may also be brought aboard to improve efficiency in the program's day-to-day operations.

Refining Training Procedures for Leaders

Whereas in Stage III training might receive less attention because professional staff acted as leaders, in Stage IV training must receive more careful attention. Focus should be on who needs to be trained and how to train all personnel most effectively. The amount and type of training that program leaders will need depends mainly on two variables: 1) the training experience that prospective leaders already possess, and 2) the depth and variety of leader skills demanded by the program.

Selection is an important issue in the first variable. Whenever possible it makes sense to select prospective leaders whose background and present skills most closely approximate those needed for the program. This cuts down training time and effort on the part of both trainer and trainee. However, sometimes other considerations may favor bringing less qualified persons into the program as leaders. For example, although the team has a sufficient number of experienced allied professionals to serve as leaders, they may decide that they want students involved in this capacity and are willing to go to the extra effort to train them. Of course, there are always times, often at the beginning of the program, when no trained personnel are volunteering. A good rule in this instance is: Take the best prospects and plan training from there.

Training will also depend on the skills required to conduct the program. If the leaders need to be group facilitators, consultants, organizers--that is, serve in a number of roles, training will need to be more intense and extended.

One solution to this problem is to train different personnel for different roles.

The workteam can also make good use of inservice training to teach and improve leader skills. Not all training must occur before the leader is able to offer some service. In fact, the leader's confidence and motivation for further training may be enhanced by giving him/her a chance to participate in a leadership function. On the other hand, the consumer of the program has the right to expect a leader who knows what he/she is doing--so the team must be careful not to value the growth of the prospective leader over that of the program participant.

If students are being trained as leaders of programs, it is often possible to set up a training process which extends over a quarter or semester, and to offer academic credit to such trainees. Many departments have special studies courses which can be utilized for this purpose.

Training for leaders will generally follow the methodology outlined in Stage II for program participants: that is, explain, demonstrate, role play with feedback and/or actual practice with feedback, and discussion to integrate the entire process. Trainees may need to do extensive role-playing before they work with a "real" population. Some observation of experienced leaders working in the program can be especially helpful when interspersed with role-playing, if that is not disruptive to the program. We would usually expect the leader trainee to achieve a higher level of ability to utilize the skill learned than we expect from the program participant. Also, more "cognitions" are built into leader training because leaders need and want to understand more of the theory and basis of the program than does the average participant.

An "internship" period, during which the leader trainee is given more intensive supervision and feedback as he/she works in the program, is a good idea. This may be most helpful in programs which are less structured and call upon the leader to "fill in the gaps" during implementation of the program.

Another important issue is raised by the question "who should train?" Often, the original workteam or one professional member of that team does all the training. That will work in the beginning, but as the program expands this could become very difficult in terms of the professional's time. Therefore, we suggest the tasks to be accomplished in training be broken down and some of the allied professionals and paraprofessionals be prepared to teach parts of the process. This saves professional time, and perhaps more importantly, allows a real "grass roots" influence in the training portion of the program. Another bonus is that trainers who are concurrently working as leaders in the program very often bring a realistic down-to-earth approach which the theorizer may have lost.

A mature training program, then, includes a systematic selection process, a well-ordered, sequenced pre-program training experience based on the behavior change model, an ongoing inservice training package, and the specification of training tasks to be mastered by each level of personnel involved in the program. Each of these training elements deserve individual attention by the program development team.

Development of Materials

The team will have developed some rudimentary training manuals for program leaders and/or participants before reaching Stage IV. They now have the time perspective and evaluation data to review all aspects of the program and decide where written and audio or visual material may further enhance the program objectives. We have found several questions helpful in this regard.

1. Are we taking time to say things which could just as easily be read and understood by program leaders and/or participants?

2. Are there informational elements that program leaders and/or participants should have available for reference throughout their training or program experience?

3. Are there concepts or expected behaviors, which are difficult to get across to program leaders and/or participants, that might be more effectively presented by some sort of audio or visual model?

4. Are all training materials for both leaders and participants written in a clear, concise style so that the respective leaders can easily implement the instructions?

Continuation of Evaluation Process

Research is conducted in Stage IV in order 1) to demonstrate the overall effectiveness of an outreach program, and 2) to isolate the differential contributions of various aspects of the program. Evaluation data resulting from such research provides feedback for further planning and program refinement.

There are a number of reasons why it is important to reassess the impact of a program. Certainly any redevelopment which occurred as a result of the initial evaluation in Stage III should be assessed. Even if no changes have been made, it may be desirable to reassess overall program effectiveness employing a more powerful experimental design with the larger target population samples. Another reason is that when an outreach program is first initiated, leaders and participants may be so involved and excited with its "newness" that measures of effectiveness can be spuriously evaluated by this "primacy" effect.

The largest bulk of research conducted in Stage IV deals with the various parameters of the program that differentially contribute to a program's overall effectiveness. This research helps isolate the most and least effective elements in the program's delivery system. It is also possible to experimentally study the interactions between various participant characteristics, leader characteristics, and criterion measure of program effectiveness. For example, a Stage IV

experiment might be to study the differential effectiveness of each category of personnel (professional, allied professional, paraprofessional, and student volunteer) as program leaders.

The evaluation questions raised in Stage IV require the most powerful and efficient research design the program situation will allow. Although it is beyond the scope of this paper to discuss the various designs available, designs that use more than one control group and provide information about the interaction between important variables should be considered where feasible.

Finally, it should be emphasized that evaluation data are of little value unless they are available and used by those involved. All workteam members and program leaders should be kept thoroughly informed of all evaluation results, for evaluation is the basis upon which changes in the program delivery system are systematically implemented. At times it also makes sense to share evaluation results with program participants. Pre- and post-test scores can be helpful to a participant as he/she examines his/her own goals for participation in the program and individual progress.

Other important consumer groups of evaluation data are key administrators of the program directors. These key persons include the administrators in the counseling center, administrators in similar overlapping agencies, and administrators who have responsibility for the university division within which the program team is working (e.g., the dean of students and selected vice-presidents). Failure to communicate with any or all of these individuals may result in lack of continued financial support for a program. It is prudent, too, to actually share the evaluation process with administrators by actively involving them to some degree in the interpretation of results. Their commitment to the program is often strengthened and, as a bonus, they very often have excellent ideas and suggestions for future program development and evaluation. As a shared process with all concerned, evaluation becomes a vital and exciting part of the program development process.

Stage V: Maintenance to New Directions or Improvements

Stage V consists of pursuing either of two recycling processes. Team members may wish to develop a new program idea which is a spin-off of the first program, recyling their new adventure through all stages of the model. That is, one aspect of a successful program may be expanded to become an independent, though related, program. An example of this process can once again be illustrated by the marital enrichment workteam alluded to throughout this paper. After creating a general communications workshop aimed at enriching the marriage relationship, the workteam subsequently decided to develop a workshop in constructive fighting and enhancing sexuality for married couples. In other cases, the original program may be redesigned to serve another target group or another purpose. An example would be a workshop designed to help individuals develop communication skills which might be redesigned to enable a primary group to improve its communication process. Another example would be an interpersonal skill group designed for persons with severe problems in this area which might be redesigned to aid persons who are functioning adequately but who want to further develop interpersonal skills. Although new spin-offs are related to the first program, and therefore call on skills, personnel, and training materials already in existence, the team should not assume that its agency is committed to a new idea just because it supported the original one. So the team starts again at Stage I, often adding new members. In this manner, program development turns out to be a continuous process with teams that gain more confidence and expertise than they possessed the first time around.

The second kind of recycle consists of periodically looking at all programs in an agency in light of several important questions. These questions recycle a program back to the questions asked of it in Stages I, II, III, and IV. These questions include:

1. Is there still a demonstrated need for the program?

2. Do the current delivery system procedures still accomplish the intended objectives for the program?

3. Have either the target, program personnel, level of training, or implementation changed enough so that an objective reevaluation of the program is necessary?

4. Are staff resources and funding still adequate to maintain the program?

5. Has agency priority for the program changed?

These questions need to be answered at regular periods and appropriate decisions made based on this reevaluation. All staff in an agency ought to be included in the consensual prioritizing of programs being offered.

A FINAL WORD

We, the authors, would like to share with you, the reader, what writing this paper has meant to us. First, we are very pleased with our own growth as professionals, as evidenced by what we have learned about the program development process in the past four years. Second, we discovered anew just how much our CSU colleagues have contributed to our current understanding of outreach programming. We have been continuously stimulated and encouraged to write and develop programs that neither of us would have envisioned a few years ago. And third, we have become aware that what we "practice" and what we "preach" about program development are not always congruent. There are many exciting and effective outreach programs being conducted by the staff at the Colorado State University Counseling Center, ourselves included; but many of our programs have not been as systematically developed as our presentation in this paper might imply.

We are aware that two realities affect counseling center function and administration. First, the financial "heyday" for public supported higher education is past. State legislatures are simply not supporting unlimited

growth in their public colleges and universities. In fact, the opposite is more typically the rule than the exception. Counseling centers, along with academic departments and colleges, are being asked, often required, to stabilize growth if not to restrict it. Secondly, there appears to be a trend for colleges and universities to question carefully the need for and benefits of counseling center functions in the larger context of educational goals. This trend has resulted in counseling centers becoming increasingly more accountable for the services they offer and has forced centers to specify more systematic evaluation of all counseling interventions a sine quo non, not only in colleges and universities, but in most other human service agencies as well. Although the pressure of accountability can be threatening, we feel it will make counselors more systematic and creative in their provision of human service interventions.

We offer the program development process as described herein as a beginning attempt to deal with the above two realities. The systematic development, implementation, and continuous evaluation of counseling and human service programs (not excluding one-to-one development counseling) can assist agencies in living more creatively within budgetary limits, as well as help insure the continued financial support for effective interventions and programs.

The process outlined in this paper is very behavioral in bias. The reader must be cautioned to keep the methods and language of evaluation from becoming an end in themselves. Human service programs created for personal growth by people are infinitely richer than the behavioral objectives constructed to linearly describe and evaluate such programs. Such programs are usually intuitively conceived in the reverie of a daydream or a very nonanalytical moment. Sometimes such noncognitive, intuitive sparks give birth to the whole gestalt and even see how it will work before a behavior objective is even attempted.

Our behavior objectives and evaluative analyses are not the spark that kindled the generative flame of ideas, not the rich experience or program participants and leaders who partake of it. Our behavioral analyses simply round out and complete our consciousness of the program experience so that it may be shared and compared in a consensually used scientific language. If we forget this fact our programs may become as sterile and lifeless as the statistical analyses computed and reported to demonstrate their very joie de vivre.

Finally, we do not wish to convey that our model of program development is a finished product; it certainly is not. We anticipate that as we share with our colleagues the process of program development as we currently understand it, changes in the model will occur. We would very much appreciate feedback concerning which aspects of our work are most and least helpful to others in the field, and why.

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